Annotated List of Metazoan Parasites Reported from the Blue Whale, Balaenoptera musculus

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ABSTRACT: A list of all metazoan parasites reported from blue whales, *Balaenoptera musculus* (L.), indicates that of 18 endohelminth species and 8 ectoparasites or epizoa reported worldwide only 2 (*Tetrabothrius schaeferi* Markowski, 1955 and *Crassicauda tortilis* Skrjabin, 1959) are restricted to blue whales. All other reported parasites have been found in other species of mysticetes, odontocetes, or pinnipeds. The acquisition of parasites by blue whales, which have a moderate diversity of parasites, is probably restricted by their highly specialized euphausid diet. Two parasites of blue whales, *Anisakis simplex* (Rudolphi, 1809) and *Diplogonoporus balaenopterae* (Lonnberg, 1892), are known zoonotic pathogens.

KEY WORDS: parasites, blue whale, Balaenoptera musculus, zoonoses, epizootiology.

Whales harbor a variety of parasites, some of which have zoonotic potential. An understanding of the epizootiology and population dynamics of parasites of whales is essential to understand their effects on fish, fisheries, and whale populations themselves. Early parasitological studies of whales, mostly mysticetes taken during commercial whaling, were conducted primarily in Antarctica and the North Pacific Ocean and consisted of descriptions of new species, reports of new host and geographic distributions, and some observations of lesions. The blue whale, Balaenoptera musculus (Linnaeus, 1758), was hunted from 1883 to 1966 and is currently officially protected by international agreement (Small, 1971).

With increasing interest in marine mammals by scientists and environmental groups it was considered worthwhile to assemble the literature on parasites of blue whales. Parasite–host lists for marine mammals have been published by Margolis (1954), Delyamure (1955), Margolis and Dailey (1972), Dailey and Brownell (1972), and Arvy (1982). In the present paper reports of parasites of blue whales were obtained from the primary literature where possible. Localities given are as precise as possible; however, most early whalers and some biologists did not specify exact locations of their catches.

An examination of reported metazoan parasites of blue whales reveals that they harbor members of most major parasitic phyla (Table 1). All epizoa have been reported from other whales with none being unique to blue whales (Arvy, 1977). Epizoa such as *Odontobius ceti* and *Balaenophilus unisetus* are commensals on the

baleen, while Conchoderma virgatum has only been found attached to Pennella balaenopterae. Pennella balaenopterae attaches to the skin and blubber of blue whales. The lamprey, Entosphenus tridentatus, and remora are predatory vertebrates that do not remain permanently attached to whales. The epizoa of cetaceans have been reviewed by Arvy (1982).

Most endoparasites reported from blue whales are also found in pinnipeds or other whales (mysticetes and odontocetes). Except for *Tetrabothrius schaeferi* and *Crassicauda tortilis*, blue whales do not possess any unique helminths. The taxonomy of *Crassicauda* with many species described only from cephalic and posterior extremities is still problematic (see Lambertsen, 1985; Raga and Balbuena, 1990).

Blue whales are euphausid or "krill" specialists (Nemoto, 1959). The few reports of fish in the stomach of blue whales (Klumov, 1963; Lockyer 1981; Yochem and Leatherwood, 1985) have been considered as accidental ingestions with negligible epizootiological significance for blue whales.

The life cycle of most endoparasites of marine mammals is poorly known. Gastric nematodes such as Anisakis simplex are believed to use euphausids as intermediate or paratenic hosts (Smith, 1983), and this is the likely source of infection for blue whales. However, it has not been established whether fish are obligate second intermediate hosts for A. simplex. Pseudoterranova decipiens is a gastric parasite of seals, and blue whales may acquire larvae from infected pelagic crustaceans. Evidence, however, suggests transmission of P. decipiens involves benthic in-

Table 1. Reported metazoan parasites of blue whales (Balaenoptera musculus).

Ectoparasites/epizoa	Locality*	Reference†
Copepoda		
Balaneophilus unisetus Aurivillius, 1879	Н	20, 21
Pennella balaenopterae Koren and Danielssen, 1877	HID	21, 28, 33, 37
Cirripedia		21, 20, 33, 31
Xenobalanus globicipitis Steenstrup, 1851	HD	20, 21, 37
Coronula reginae Darwin, 1854	D	5, 31, 37
Conchoderma auritum (Linnaeus, 1767)	ABD	9, 14–18, 25, 37
C. virgatum (Spengler)	AD	14, 37
Nematoda	AD.	14, 37
	DECH	4 10 21 22
Odontobius ceti Roussel de Vauzème, 1834	DEGH	4, 10, 21, 23
Amphipoda		
Cyamus balaenopterae Barnard, 1931	AH	1, 2, 12
C. bahamondei Buzeta, 1963	Н	30
Cyamus sp.	D	9, 18, 37
Pisces		
Entosphenus tridentatus (Richardson, 1836)	Н	20, 21
Remora australis (Bennett, 1840)	H	20, 21,29, 35
Remora sp.	HL	11, 22
Cestoda		
Diplogonoporus balaenopterae (Lonnberg, 1892)	BEF	8, 10, 13
Priapocephalus grandis (Nybelin, 1922)	ABDEFKM	4, 6, 8, 10, 13
Tetrabothrius affinis (Lonnberg, 1891)	ABDEFM	4, 6, 8, 10, 13, 31
T. wilsoni (Leiper and Atkinson, 1914)	ABE	8, 10, 13
T. schaeferi Markowski, 1955	BEF	8, 10, 13
Tetrabothrius sp.	D	5, 8, 31
Digenea		, ,
Ogmogaster antarcticus (Johnston, 1931)	Е	6, 10
O. plicatus (Creplin, 1839)	DK	4, 6, 10, 32, 34
Nematoda	211	, 0, 10, 52, 57
Anisakis simplex (Rudolphi, 1809)	DEKN	4 6 9 10
Anisakis sp.	G	4, 6, 8, 10 23
Crassicauda crassicauda (Creplin, 1829)	BDEHK	4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 21, 36
C. tortilis Skrjabin, 1959	G	23
C. boopis (Baylis, 1920)	В	7, 8
Pseudoterranova decipiens (Krabbe, 1878)	E E	6, 10
Acanthocephala	L	0, 10
	PEGW.	4 6 10 10 06 0-
Bolbosoma turbinella (Diesing, 1851)	DEGJK	4, 6, 10, 19, 26, 27
B. balaenae (Gmelin, 1790)	DEKO	4, 6, 10, 26
B. brevicolle (Malm, 1867)	ABCDEK	3, 4, 6, 8, 10
B. hamiltoni (Baylis, 1929)	BE	3, 4, 6, 8, 10
B. nipponicum Yamaguti, 1939	GH	21, 23
B. paramuschiri Skrjabin, 1959	G	23
Bolbosoma sp.	Н	20

^{*} A, Southeast Atlantic Ocean; B, South Atlantic Ocean; C, Southwest Atlantic Ocean; D, Antarctic waters; E, Arctic waters; F, Southern Ocean; G, Northwest Pacific Ocean; H, Northeast Pacific Ocean; I, Northeast Atlantic Ocean; J, Northwest Atlantic Ocean; K, North Atlantic Ocean; L, North Indian Ocean; M, North Pacific Ocean; N, Southeast Pacific Ocean; O, Tasman Sea. † 1, Barnard (1931); 2, Barnard (1932); 3, Baylis (1929); 4, Baylis (1932); 5, Cockrill (1960); 6, Delyamure (1955); 7, Gibson (1973); 8, Gibson and Harris (1979); 9, Kakuwa et al. (1953); 10, Klumov (1963); 11, Leatherwood et al. (1984); 12, Margolis and Dailey (1972); 13, Markowski (1955); 14, Nilsson-Cantell (1930); 15, Nilsson-Cantell (1939); 16, Nishiwaki and Hayashi (1950); 17, Nishiwaki and Oye (1951); 18, Ohno and Fujino (1952); 19, Porta (1908); 20, Rice (1963); 21, Rice (1978); 22, Rice and Caldwell (1961); 23, Skrjabin (1959); 24, Yochem and Leatherwood (1985); 25, Clarke (1966); 26, Petrochenko (1958); 27, Measures (1992); 28, Turner (1905); 29, Follett and Dempster (1960); 30, Berzin and Vlasova (1982); 31, Rees (1953); 32, Skrjabin (1969); 33, Quidor (1910); 34, Jagerskiold (1891); 35, Carl and Wilby (1945); 36, Baylis (1920); 37, Mackintosh and Wheeler (1929).

vertebrates and fish (McClelland, 1990). Both of these species can infect humans (Jackson, 1975; Margolis, 1977). The life cycles of *Crassicauda* spp. that inhabit the fascia, cranial sinuses, mammary glands, and urogenital system in whales are unknown. Life cycles are probably heteroxenous, involving an arthropod, such as a crustacean, intermediate host as do most spirurids. Lambertsen (1986), however, suggested that a direct life cycle may be involved.

Acanthocephalans in the intestines of whales are not particularly host specific. A number of species of acanthocephalans have been reported in the same species of whale, but an individual whale host usually has only one species of acanthocephalan in its intestine (Petrochenko, 1956). Acanthocephalans with aquatic life cycles use arthropod intermediate hosts such as amphipods, ostracods, or other crustaceans. Shimazu (1975) reported juvenile *Bolbosoma caenoforme* in 2 species of euphausids collected in the North Pacific Ocean. *Bolbosoma* sp. can infect humans but this is considered rare (Beaver et al., 1983; Tada et al., 1983).

The life cycles of the intestinal notocotylids Ogmogaster plicatus and O. antarcticus are unknown and the latter has also been reported in pinnipeds. Diplogonoporus balaenopterae found in the intestines of whales presumably has a typical pseudophyllidean life cycle (crustacean first intermediate host, fish second intermediate host). Diplogonoporus balaenopterae has been involved in almost 100 human cases of infection in Japan. It is likely acquired by eating raw fish or squid, but plerocercoids of D. balaenopterae in fish or squid have not been reported (Oshima and Kliks, 1986). Copepods were shown to be first intermediate hosts (Kamo et al., 1973). The biology of the intestinal tetrabothriids Priapocephalus grandis and Tetrabothrius spp. is unknown. Crustaceans, cephalopods, and/or teleosts are suggested as intermediate and/or paratenic hosts of tetrabothriids. However, twohost cycles (blue whales acquiring larval cestodes from their crustacean prey) may occur (see Hoberg, 1987).

Blue whales are migratory and this vagility could contribute to the acquisition of a great diversity of parasites. As shown here blue whales have a moderate diversity of parasites. Their acquisition is probably restricted by the specialized feeding habits of blue whales. However, the occurrence of *D. balaenopterae* in blue whales suggests that they ingest more than the occasional accidental fish (second intermediate host?). Blue

whales may ingest up to 4 tons of krill per day during the feeding season (Lockyer, 1981). Because fish such as capelin and herring also feed on swarms of krill, it is not surprising that blue whales may ingest some of these fish during feeding. This may also explain reports of *Anisakis* sp. and *Pseudoterranova* sp. if fish are obligate hosts

Quantitative data on helminths of blue whales are not available in the literature, which is not surprising given the dimensions of the gastro-intestinal tract; the intestine may be up to 150 m long! However, future studies should be directed to determinations of intensities, particularly with a view to understanding the population dynamics of zoonotic parasites such as species of *Anisakis* and *Diplogonoporus*.

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